High-dimensional data: introduction

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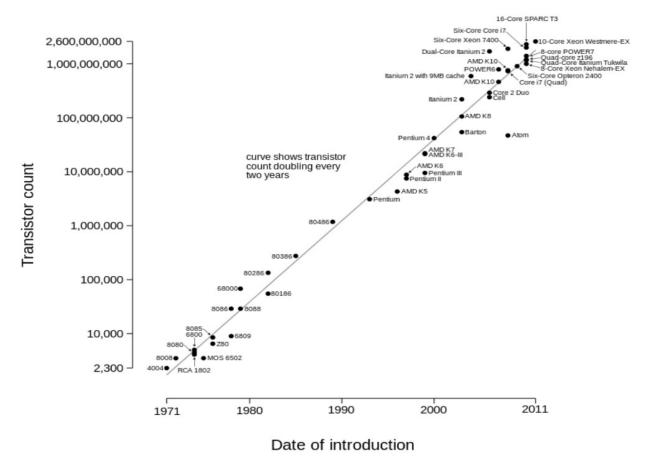




How did we end up here?

Moore's law

The number of transistors in a dense integrated circuit doubles approximately every two years.

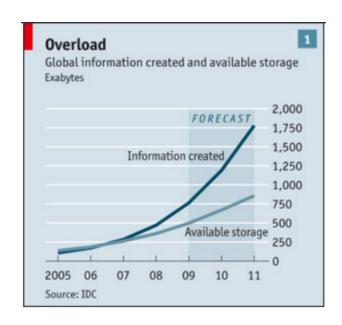


source: wikipedia

How did we end up here?

Data deluge

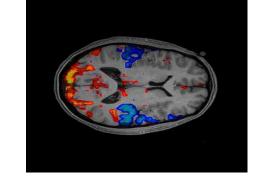
"... the quantity of information in the world is soaring. According to one estimate, mankind created 150 exabytes (billion gigabytes) of data in 2005. This year, it will create 1,200 exabytes. Merely keeping up with this flood, and storing the bits that might be useful, is difficult enough. Analysing it, to spot patterns and extract useful information, is harder still."



How did we end up here?

Examples

→ Brain image data (fMRI / EEG)



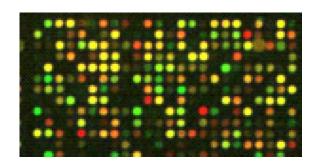
→ Movie database



→ Google search data



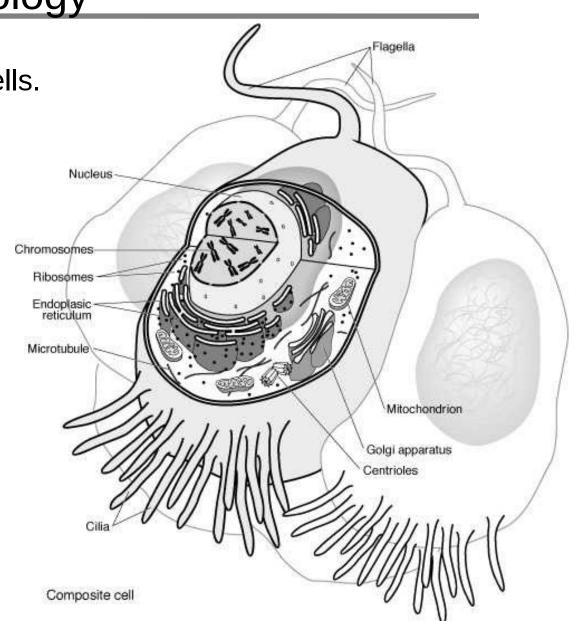
→ Microarrays



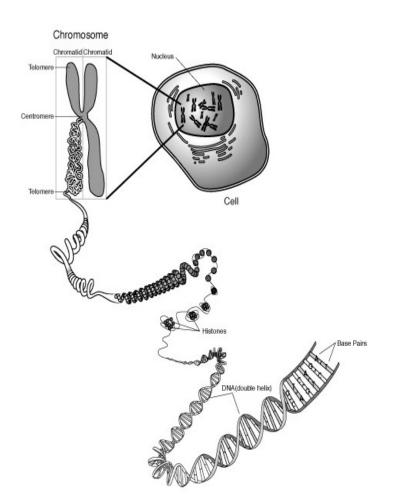
Organisms are made of cells.

A *cell* is the smallest possible independent living unit. The cell contains a complete copy of the organisms genome.

The *genome* is the total genetic constitution of an organism, the full haploid set of chromosomes with all its genes.



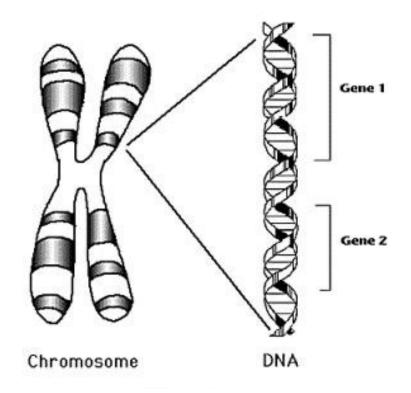
A *chromosome* is one of a set of threadlike molecular structures composed of compressed *DNA*, that carry the genes which determine an individual's heriditary traits.



Conceptually, *DNA* is an information carrier, information necessary for the functioning of cells and encoded in molecular units called genes.

On the molecular level DNA is a double-stranded polymer composed of four basic molecular units called nucleotides.

A *gene* is the basic physical unit of heredity: a linear sequence of nucleotides, as a segment of DNA located on a chromosome, that provides the coded instruction for one polypeptide chain.

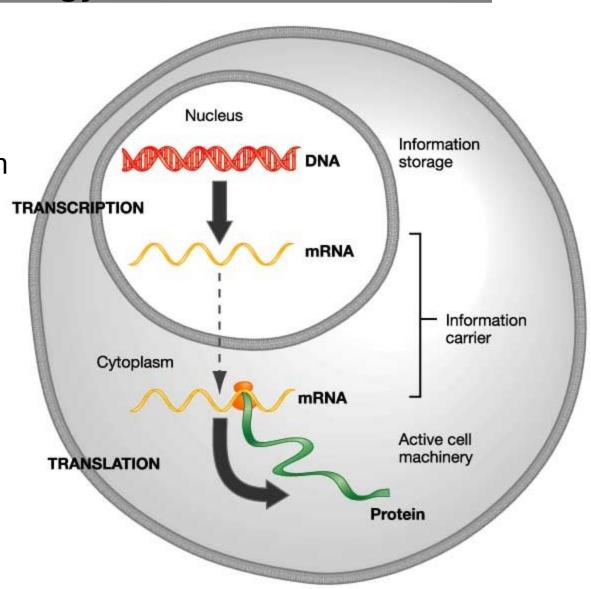


Central Dogma of Molecular Biology

describes the information transfer process that leads from the information encoded in DNA to the proteins in the cell.

Three steps are discerned:

- 1) Replication
- 2) Transcription
- 3) Translation

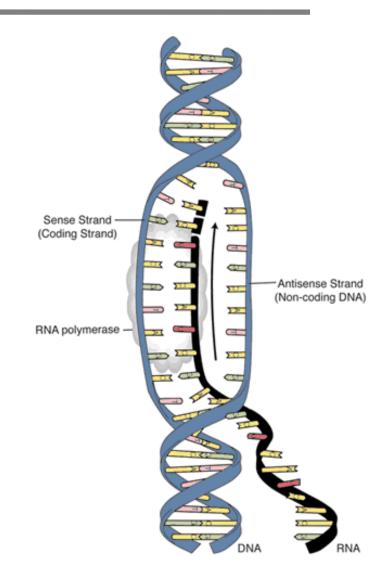


Transcription is the synthesis of mRNA (nucleic acid like DNA, but single-stranded) from the DNA in the nucleus.

The mRNA is transported to the cytoplasm and used to synthesize protein.

Jargon

A gene is said to be *expressed* if the product it encodes for has been formed.



Molecular biology aims to understand the molecular processes that occur in the cell. That is, which molecules present in the cell interact, and how is this coordinated?

For many cellular process, it is unknown which genes play what role.

Solution

Simply measure (the expression of) all genes ... and later sort out which are relevant.

Microarray

Conceptually: a measurement device.

Gene expression arrays measure the expression of genes (which genes are expressed and to what extent). In fact, it measures mRNA which is related – through the transcription process – to the expression of genes.

Other types of microarrays measure:

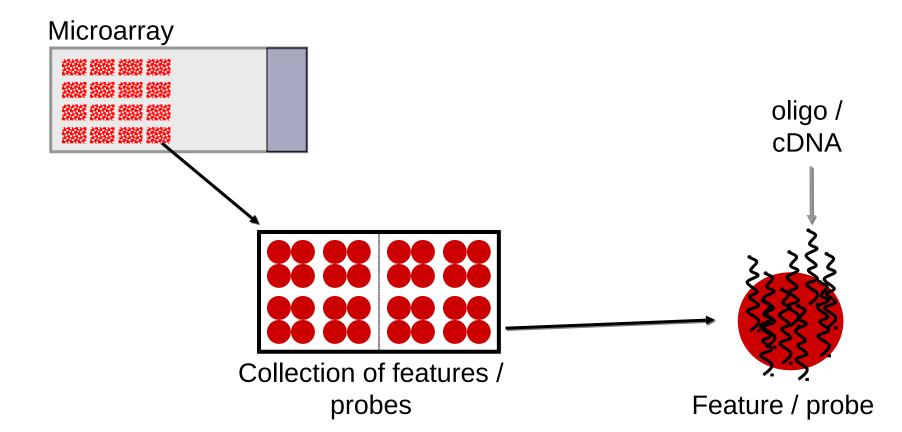
- SNPs
- DNA copy number
- methylation

• ...

Microarray

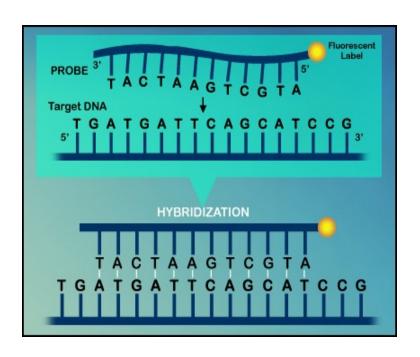
• Physically: a glass slide



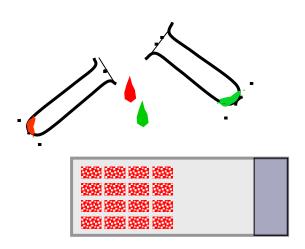


Hybridization

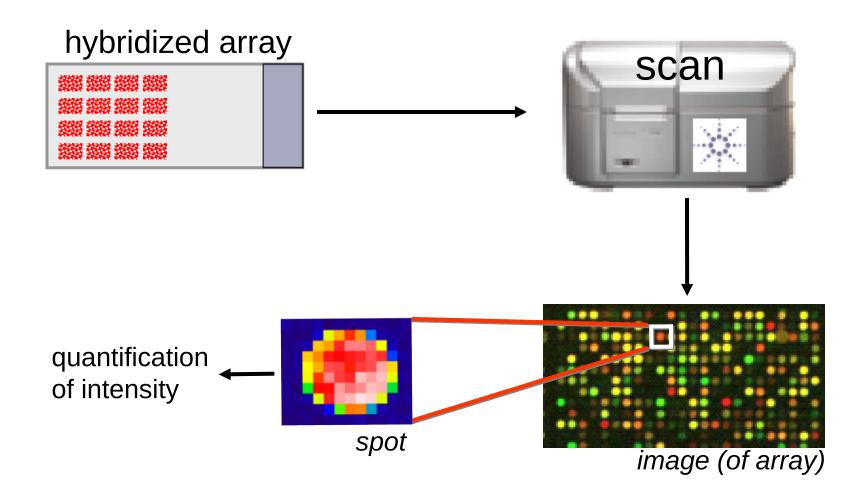
The preferential binding of gene sequences to complementary sequences.





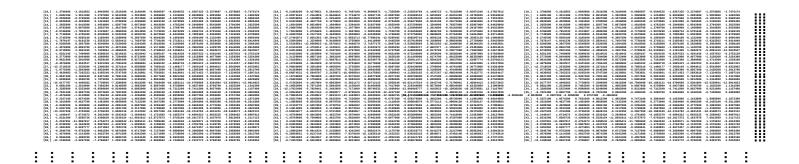


An image of the microarray is generated



Output per hybridization:

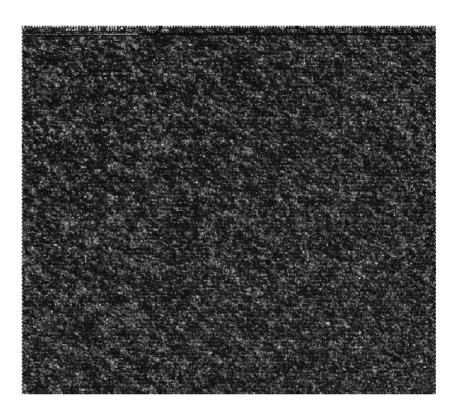
- File of 44Mb
- ~44000 rows
- ~100 columns
- Annotation information
- Quality metrics
- Biological signal (in various forms)
- Background signal (in various forms)

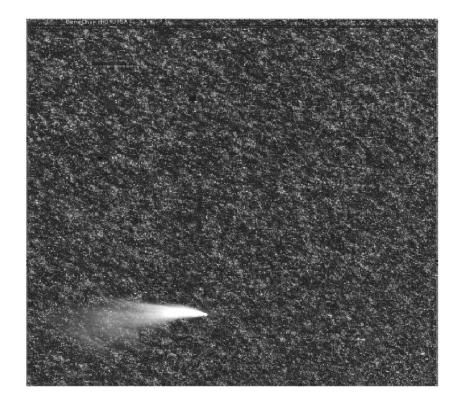


Quality control

Plot the raw image of the array

> image(...)



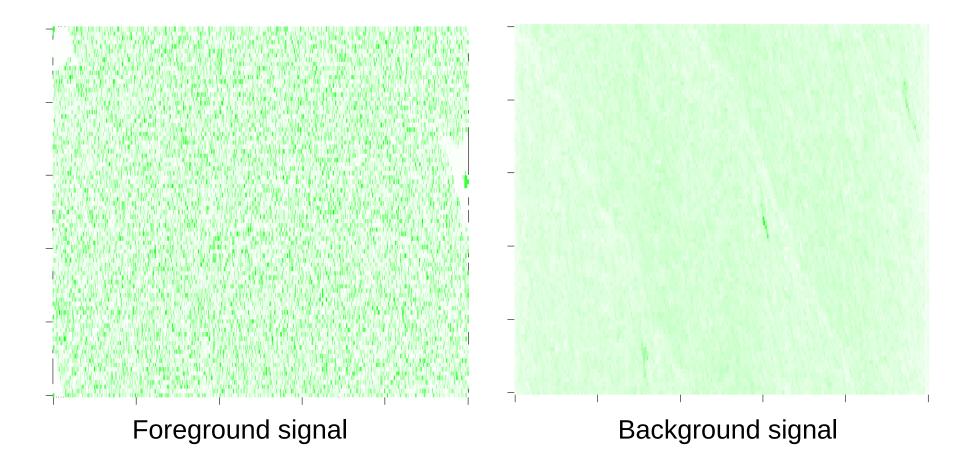


Nothing special

Quality control

Plot image of fore- and background signal

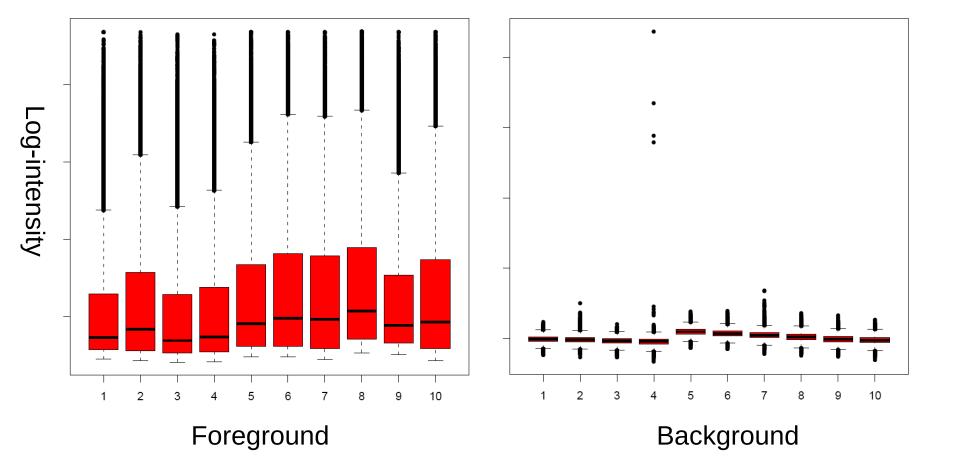
> image(...)



Quality control

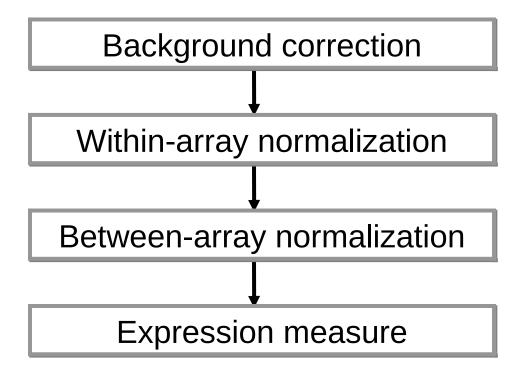
Generate boxplots of fore- and background signal

> boxplot(...)



Preprocessing

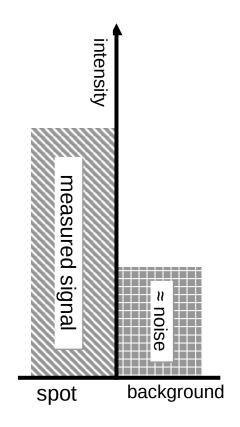
Before the statistical analysis of interest, the gene expression measurements (intensities) undergo several preprocessing steps.

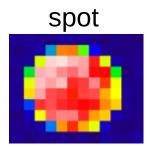


Background intensity

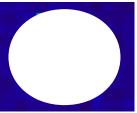
The background of the microarray may have a non-zero intensity.

Hence, a feature's intensity may include a contribution not specifically due to the hybrization of the target to the probe.

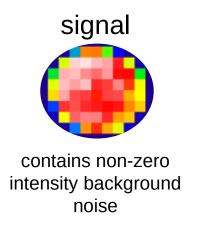




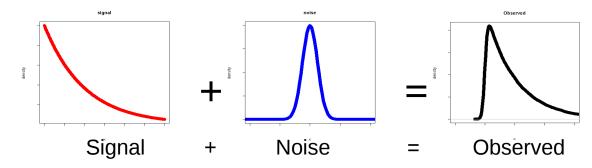
spot surrounding



nonzero intensity: not necessary representative of background noise inside feature area.



Many signal-noise models view the observed log-intensities as a combination of true signal and background noise.



The 'signal + background' model for the intensities:

$$Y_{ij} = S_{ij} + BG_{ij}$$

- $\Rightarrow Y_{ij}$ is the intensity of sample *i* and feature *j*.
- \Rightarrow S_{ij} and BG_{ij} are independent random variables.
- $\Rightarrow BG_{ij} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$
- $\Rightarrow S_{ij} \sim \exp(\alpha_i)$

Estimation of μ_i :

- Fit a density to the Y_{ii} , using a kernel density estimator.
- Estimate μ_i by the mode of the density.

Estimation of α_i and σ_i :

$$\hat{\alpha}_{i} = \sum_{j=1}^{p} (Y_{ij} - \hat{\mu}_{i}) I_{\{Y_{ij} \ge \hat{\mu}_{i}\}} / \sum_{j=1}^{p} I_{\{Y_{ij} \ge \hat{\mu}_{i}\}}$$

$$\hat{\sigma}_{i}^{2} = 2 \sum_{j=1}^{p} (Y_{ij} - \hat{\mu}_{i})^{2} I_{\{Y_{ij} \ge \hat{\mu}_{i}\}} / \left(\sum_{j=1}^{p} I_{\{Y_{ij} \ge \hat{\mu}_{i}\}} - 1\right)$$

The background corrected intensity is $B(Y_{ij}) = \mathbb{E}(S_{ij} \mid Y_{ij})$ with

$$\mathbb{E}(S_{ij} \mid Y_{ij}) = \int_0^\infty sP(Y_{ij} \mid S = s)P(S = s)/P(Y_{ij})ds$$

and

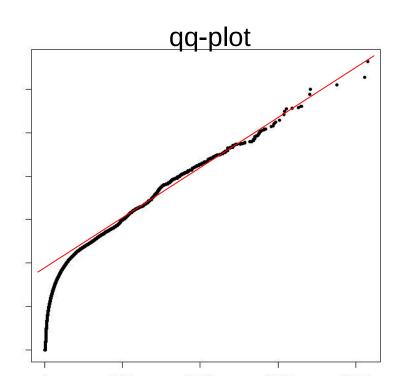
$$f_Y(Y_{ij}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(Y_{ij} - z) f_{BG}(z) dz$$

Important

There is no a priori justification for the presented 'signal + background' model (or any of its competitors):

its usefulness must prove itself in application!

For instance, check distributional assumptions.



Motivation for normalization

Normalization is required to correct for experimental artifacts while preserving the true biological signal.

Normalization balances intensities

- → between dyes, and
- → between hybridizations in order to allow comparison of gene expression across hybridizations.
- Dyes: within-array normalization.
- Hybridizations: between-array normalization.

Conceptually, normalization adjusts intensities relative to intensities of reference genes whose levels are assumed to be constants between samples.

A set of genes that are to function as reference genes in the normalization must be chosen.

Genes for normalization All genes on the array Constantly expressed genes Controls Rank invariant genes

1. All genes on the array

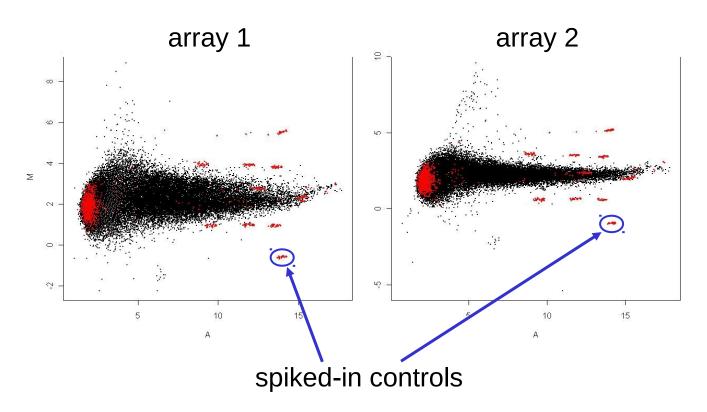
All genes on the array are used in normalization.

This is sensible when:

- a) only a relatively small proportion of the genes will vary significantly in expression between mRNA-samples, or
- b) there is symmetry in the expression levels of the up/down-regulated genes.

3. Controls

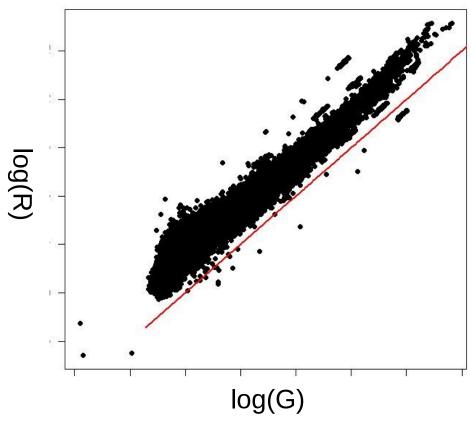
Spiked-in controls are synthetic DNA sequences (complementary to oligonucleotides on the array) and included in the mRNA samples at equal amount and should have equal intensities across hybridization.



Within-array normalization aims

- → to balance intensities of the two dyes, as well as
- → to elimate other systematic differences due to unequal experimental conditions.

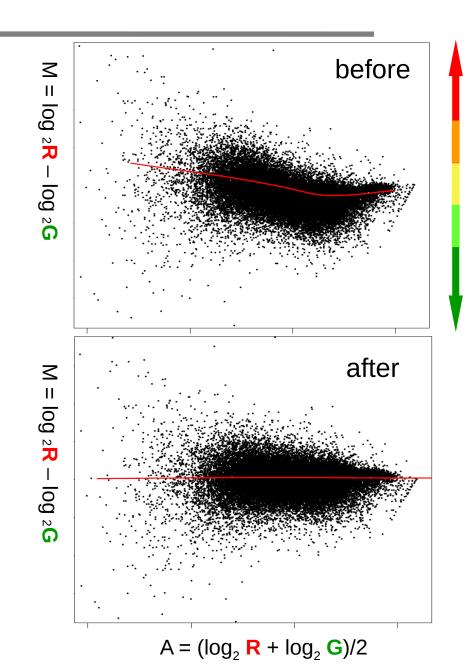
Systematic deviations from the line log(G)=log(R) indicate a dye-effect that is to be eliminated by normalization.



MA plot

Within-array normalization uses the MA-plot to identify artifacts and detect intensity-dependent patterns in log-ratio's M_i .

Statistically, within-array normalization subtracts a function $g(\bullet)$ from the individual intensity log-ratio's M_j . The function $g(\bullet)$ is computed per array.



Operationalization of between-array normalization

A transformation of the individual intensities values (or log-ratio's) such that the intensities are comparable across arrays.

- → A transformation is constructed for each hybridization.
- → The functional form of the normalizing transformation is determined by the type of normalization.

Discuss: scale and quantile normalization

Scale normalization

Assume log-ratios from array *i* follow $\mathcal{N}(0, a_i^2 \sigma^2)$ The scale factors a_i are robustly estimated by:

$$\hat{a}_i = \frac{\operatorname{mad}_i}{\sqrt[n]{\prod_{i=1}^n \operatorname{mad}_i}}$$

where mad_i is the median absolute deviation of array i:

$$\operatorname{mad} = \operatorname{median}_{i}\{|X_{i} - \operatorname{median}_{j}(X_{j})|\}$$

Scale normalization is then achieved by dividing the logratios by the estimate of a_i .

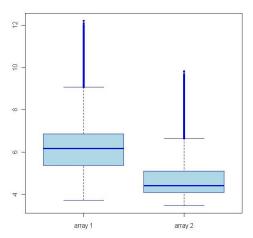
Quantile normalization aims to make the distribution of probe intensities the same across arrays. This operationalization is motivated by the assumption that the amount of mRNA in each sample is roughly the same.

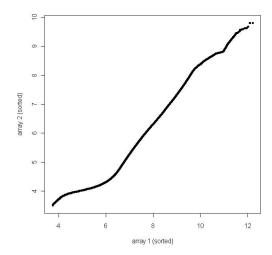
It transforms the data from all arrays such that the transformed data follow the n-dimensional identity line in the n-dimensional qq-plot.

Rationale

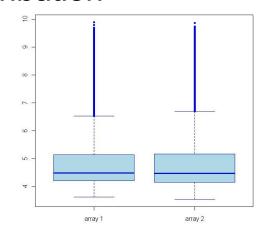
The quantiles of two identical distribution line up on the diagonal of a qq-plot. This suggests that two datasets could be given the same distribution by equalling their quantiles.

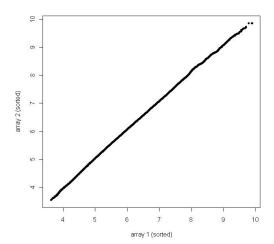
Different distributions ...





... same distribution





Expression measure

Operationalization of expression

An expression measure is a number reflecting the amount of RNA in the sample.

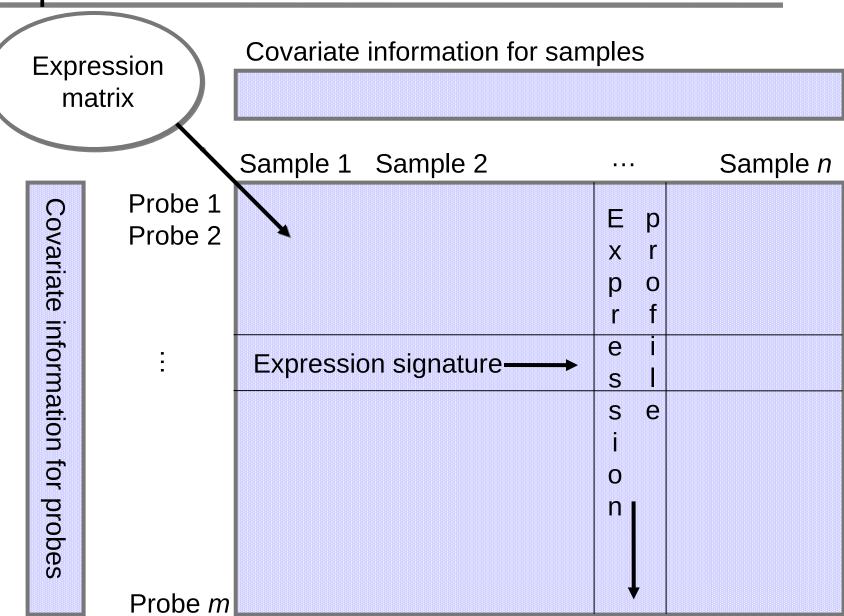
For dual channel arrays:

• the expression measure is simply the log-ratio's $M_{\rm j}$.

For the Affymetrix single channel array:

 an expression measure is determined by summarizing the probe level data of a probe set (set of features interrogating the same gene) into one number. (not discussed)

Expression measure



Rubbish?

"Microarrays are the closest thing to fraud we accept in science."

-- ????, ????

- Inherently noisy.
- Many sources of variation.
- Many preprocessing steps, with lots of arbitrary choices.

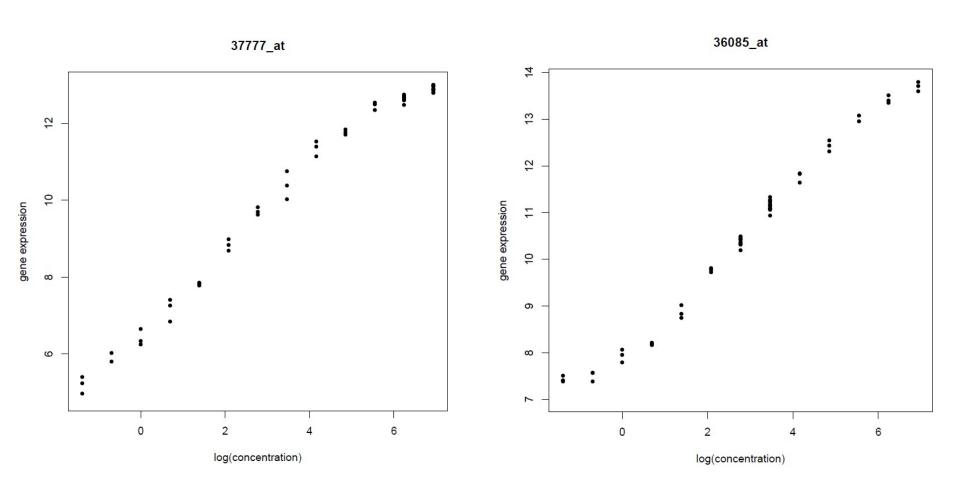
Rubbish?

Affymetrix spike-in experiment

- → 14 gene groups are spiked-in at varies concentrations in accordance with a latin square design.
- → Each hybridization has been replicated at least three times.
- → In total 59 hybridization.
- → Array type: HG-U95.

A proof of principle?

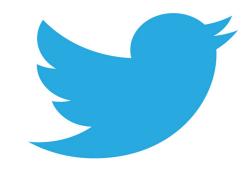
Rubbish?



Other data have similar issues

Twitter data

E.g. can one identify one's political preference on the basis of his/her tweets?



Sometimes easy:



Democrats are the problem. They don't care

but meaning not always obvious:



Despite the constant negative press covfefe

Other data have similar issues

Twitter data

Harvesting: which tweets to select?

Decide upon:

- → Time period of tweets.
- → Original tweet only?
- → Include retweets?
- → Include replies?
- → Which language?
- → Users' geographical location.
- → Include meta-data like user profile?

Other data have similar issues

Twitter data

Preprocessing issues:

- → URLs, @, #, emoticons, and other symbols,
- → Spelling:
 - → 1000, 1,000, 1000.00, 1,000.00, or thousand, or
 - → colour or color,
- → Synonyms:
 - → loud or noisy (in e.g. a Tripadvisor review),
- → Acronyms:
 - → POTUS, LOL, BFF.
- → Remove low frequency words?
- → Remove stop words like "and"?
- → Combine tweets?

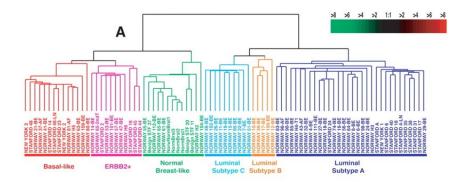
An example: the big promise

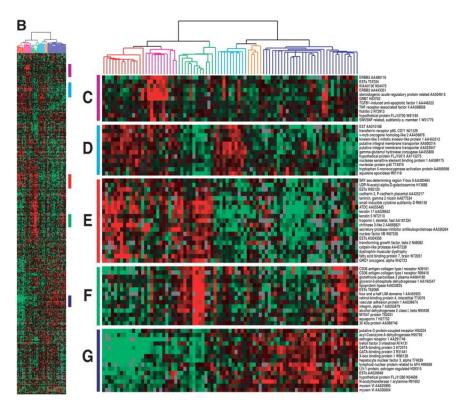
Gene expression patterns of breast carcinomas distinguish tumor subclasses with clinical implications

Therese Sorlie^{a,b,c}, Charles M. Perou^{a,d}, Robert Tibshirani^e, Turid Aas^f, Stephanie Geisler^g, Hilde Johnsen^b, Trevor Hastie^e, Michael B. Eisen^h, Matt van de Rijnⁱ, Stefanie S. Jeffreyⁱ, Thor Thorsen^k, Hanne Quistⁱ, John C. Matese^c, Patrick O. Brown^m, David Botstein^c, Per Eystein Lonning^g, and Anne-Lise Borresen-Dale^{b,n}

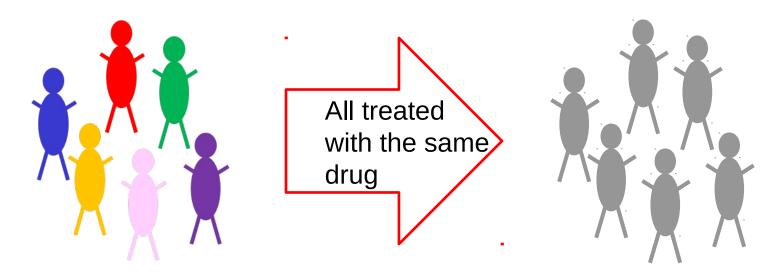
Using 78 breast cancer profiles, five subtypes are distinguished:

- Basal
- ERBB2
- Luminal A
- Luminal B
- Normal





Traditional medicine



Standard treatment may not be beneficial to everyone.

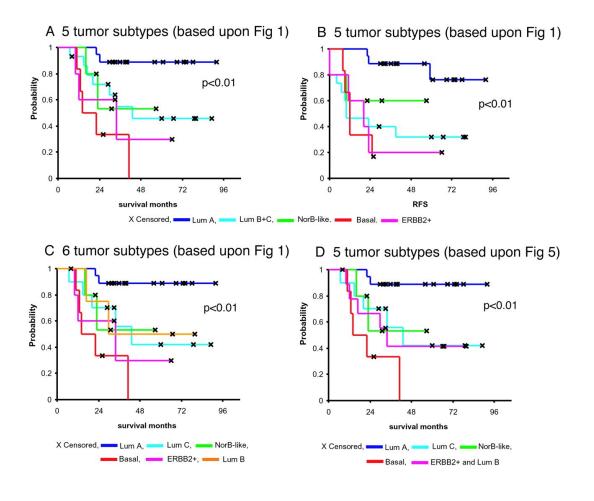
Subgrouping of breast cancers suggest patients from different subgroups may need different therapy.

<u>An example</u>

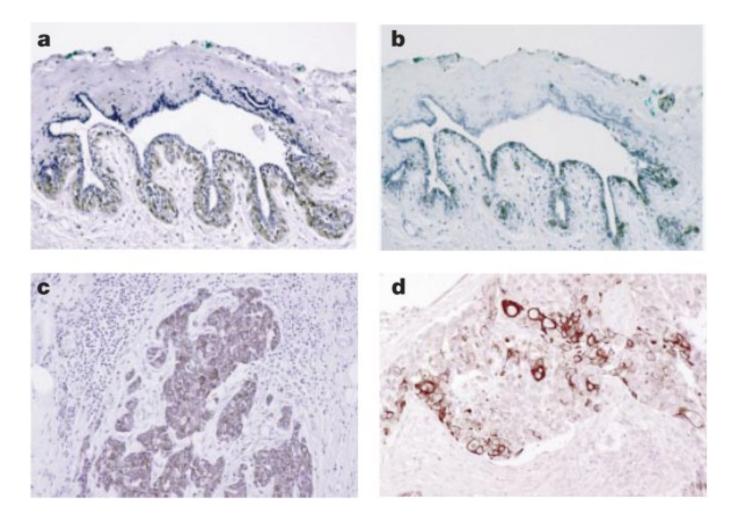
Personalized medicine Individualized treatment based on patient's genetic characteristics. Genetic test

Why do people believe these breast cancer subtypes?

1) Subtypes exhibit different clinical outcome.



Why do people believe these breast cancer subtypes?
2) Exhibit different morphology.

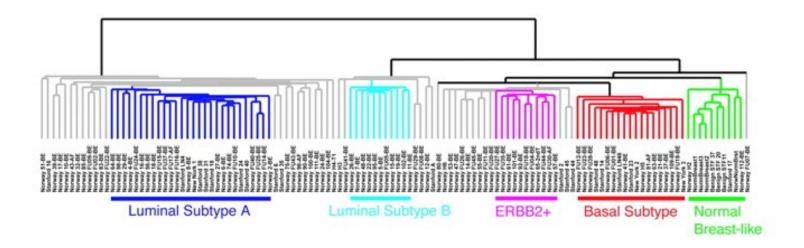


Why do people believe these breast cancer subtypes?

3) Subtypes have been confirmed.

Repeated observation of breast tumor subtypes in independent gene expression data sets

Therese Sørlie*, Robert Tibshirani[†], Joel Parker[‡], Trevor Hastie[§], J. S. Marron[¶], Andrew Nobel[¶], Shibing Deng[∥], Hilde Johnsen**, Robert Pesich*, Stephanie Geisler^{††}, Janos Demeter*, Charles M. Perou^{‡,‡‡}, Per E. Lønning^{††}, Patrick O. Brown^{§§}, Anne-Lise Børresen-Dale**, and David Botstein*^{¶¶}



Medio 2012, the story continues ...

ARTICLE

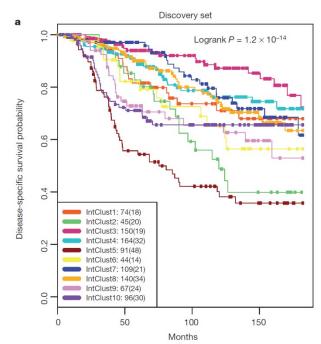
doi:10.1038/nature10983

The genomic and transcriptomic architecture of 2,000 breast tumours

reveals novel subgroups

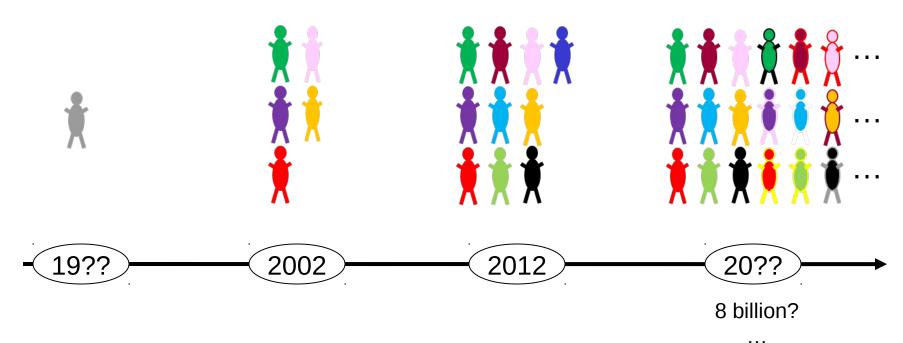
Christina Curtis^{1,2}†*, Sohrab P. Shah^{3,4}*, Suet-Feung Chin^{1,2}*, Gulisa Turashvi Doug Speed^{2,5}†, Andy G. Lynch^{1,2}, Shamith Samarajiwa^{1,2}, Yinyin Yuan^{1,2}, Ste Ali Bashashati³, Roslin Russell², Steven McKinney^{3,4}, METABRIC Group‡, Anit Gordon Wishart⁸, Sarah Pinder⁹, Peter Watson^{3,4,10}, Florian Markowetz^{1,2}, Lei Anne-Lise Børresen-Dale^{6,12}, James D. Brenton^{2,13}, Simon Tavaré^{1,2,5,14}, Carlor

Inclusion of more molecular information suggests the existence of 10 subgroups.



How many subgroups really exist?

Genetically, everybody is unique. Thus ...



personalized medicine to the max?

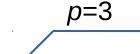
The curse of dimensionality

i) The high-dimensional space is enormous and data points are isolated.

Unit cubes

$$p=1$$





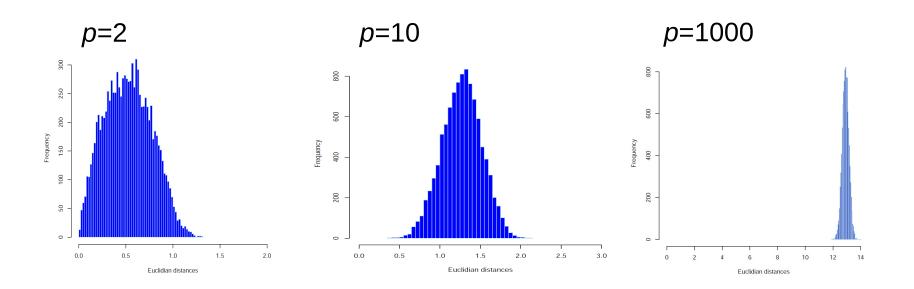
Maximum distances

$$\sqrt{1^2} = 1$$

$$\sqrt{1^2 + 1^2} = \sqrt{2}$$

$$\sqrt{1^2 + 1^2} = \sqrt{2} \qquad \sqrt{1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2} = \sqrt{3}$$

Histograms of Euclidean distances between random vectors from the p-dimensional unit cube.



Distances grow with p and (relatively) more homogeneous.

Question

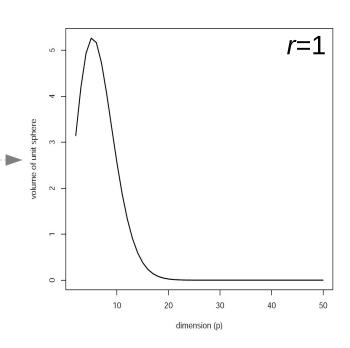
What does this do to the "nearest neighbor" concept?

ii) Volume of unit balls vanishes as p increases.

The volume of a sphere with radius r in a p-dimensions:

$$V_p(r) = [\Gamma(p/2+1)]^{-1} \pi^{p/2} r^p$$

For p = 20, $V_p(1) = 1.73 \times 10^{-13}$.



Question

What are the consequences for the sample size?

A well-designed experiment provides good coverage of the design space.

- → Design space: unit cube $[0,1]^p$.
- → Distribute n points s.t. union of unit balls around the points encompass the unit cube.
- → Calculate required n for varying dimensions p.

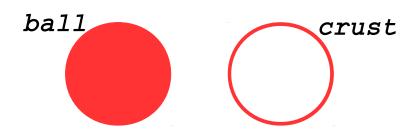
p	n
20	39
30	43630
50	5.7 x 10 ¹²
100	4.2 x 10 ³⁹
150	1.28 x 10 ⁷²

iii) Volume of unit balls concentrates around the crust.

Denote p-dimensional ball with radius r by: $B_p(0, r)$.

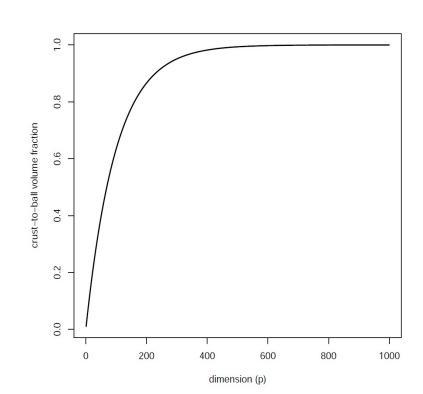
Define the "crust" by:

$$C_{p}(r) = B_{p}(0, r) \setminus B_{p}(0, 0.99 r).$$



Then, the crust-to-ball volume is:

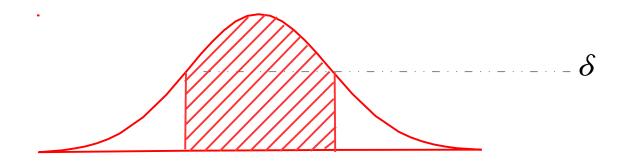
 $Vol[C_p(r)] / Vol[B_p(0, r)]$



The univariate normal distribution concentrates most mass around its mean and has thin tails.

This is reversed for large p:

$$P[\exp(-\frac{1}{2}||\mathbf{X}||_2^2) \ge \delta] \le (\delta 2^{p/2})^{-1}$$



Consequence
Rare events may not be so rare.

This lecture series

A comparison of the expression levels of gene *A* between two groups:

```
data: group 1 and group 2
t = -8.6449, df = 17.284, p-value = 1.099e-07
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
```

• This is a rather small *p*-value.

Welch Two Sample t-test

- Getting such a small p-value is unlikely.
- Is it still unlikely if we acknowledge that the gene is one of 40000 on the microarray?

The multiplicity problem

Each individual test has a specified type I error probability. This probability of committing a type I error increases with the number of tests.

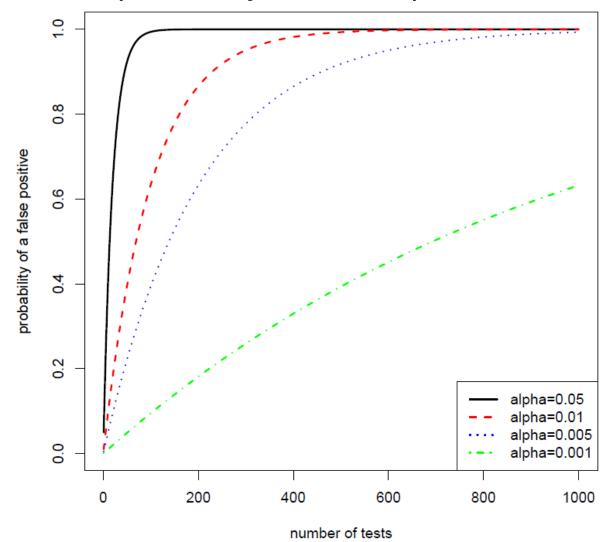
The probability of at least one false positive finding in m tests is given by:

$$1 - (1 - P(\sim H_0 | H_0))^m$$

= $1 - (1 - \alpha)^m$

m	$1 - (1 - P(\sim H_0 \mid H_0))^m$
1	0.0500
2	0.0975
5	0.2262
10	0.4013
100	0.9941

Decreasing the rejection level reduces the probability of a false positive.



Problem

- → many traits, many tests,
- → large number of false positives.

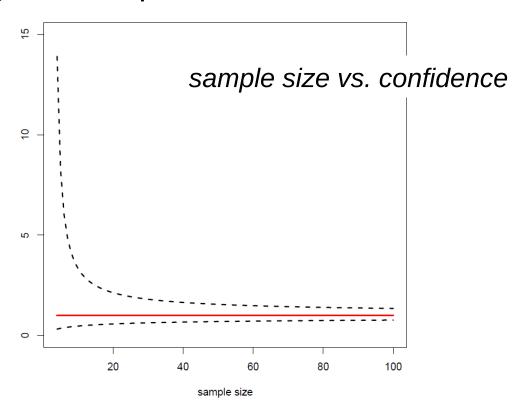
Multiple testing

- → generalization of type I error,
- → control of this generalized type I error,
- → control of number of false positives.

Techniques (in lecture series)

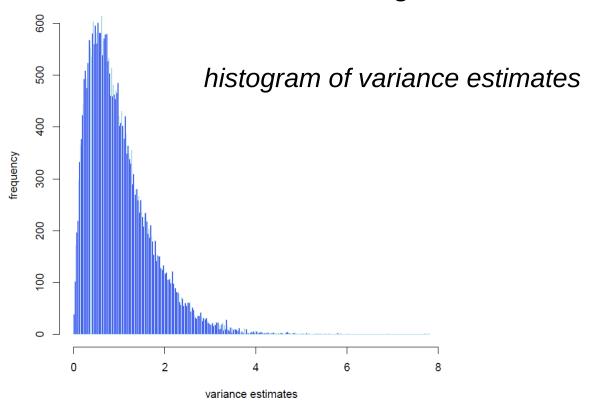
- → FWER,
- → FDR.

Estimation of the variance of expression levels of gene A, with only few samples available.



Few samples → large uncertainty.

Additional information available: variance estimates of 40000 other genes.



Confidence interval of overall pooled variance estimate: very, very small.

Individual variance estimate:

→ unbiased, but large uncertainly

Overall pooled variance estimate:

→ biased, but very low uncertainty

Why not exploit the strengths of boths?

E.g. by combined estimator:

(1-
$$\theta$$
) $s^2_{individual} + \theta s^2_{overall}$

The individual estimator is "shrunken" towards the overall.

Problem

- → low sample: highly variable estimates,
- → low-reproducibility

Shrinkage

- → traits are "comparable",
- → borrow information across traits,
- → stabilizes estimation and improve inference.

Techniques (in lecture series)

- → Stein estimator,
- → Empirical Bayes.

A common objective

predict clinical outcome from gene expression levels.

Data available:

- → a few hundred samples at best,
- → # covariates \approx 40000.

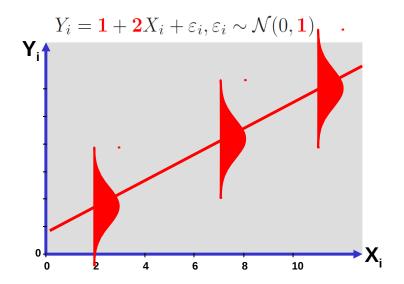
Harrell (2001) gives the following rule-of-thumb: For each continuous covariate in the model 10–20 observations are needed to detect reasonably sized effects with reasonable power.

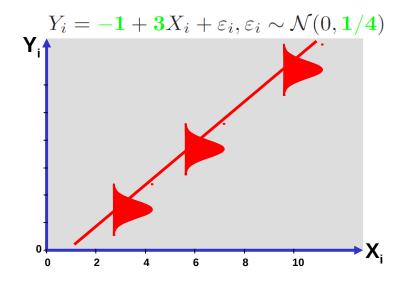
Where does this put us? A model with 20 genes?

Identifiability

A statistical model is *identifiable* if for any two choices of the parameter θ_1 and θ_2 , such that $\theta_1 \neq \theta_2$, the resulting probability distributions differ: $P_{\theta_1} \neq P_{\theta_2}$.

Fact
The linear regression is identifiable.





Identifiability

Empirically, when p > n, the parameters cannot uniquely be identified from the data. That is, multiple parameter choices yield the same model.

Data available:

- \rightarrow 100 samples,
- → 10000 covariates,

Then:

- → Let the first 100 covariates be linearly independent.
- → The same holds for the second 100 covariates.
- → Both sets of covariates produce a linear regression model with a perfect fit.

How do we distinguish between the two?

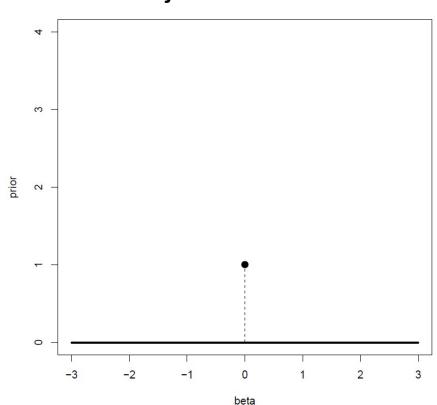
Additional information may help.

In extremis

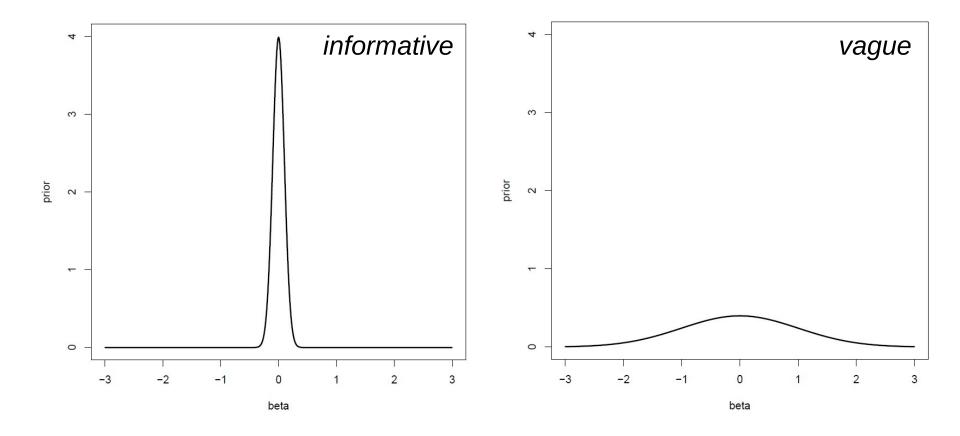
Would one know which (max) 20 covariates to include, Harrell (by his rule-of-thumb) would not object.

A natural way to include such information is e.g. through the specification of a prior.

A *prior with a point mass* at zero omits the covariate from the model.



Often no knowledge on relevant covariates. Data may help in the selection of the prior. E.g., very large sample size: no informative prior needed.



Problem:
Correlation
estimates
inflate

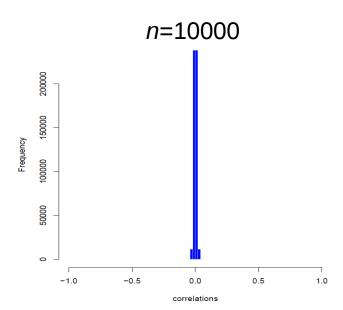
Data:

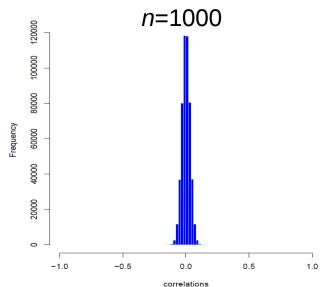
$$\rightarrow Y_i \sim N(0_p, I_{pp})$$

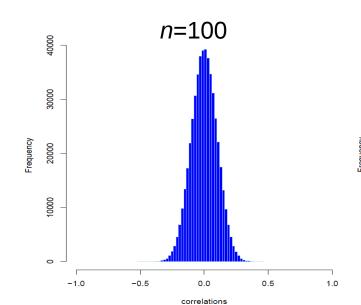
$$\rightarrow p = 1000$$

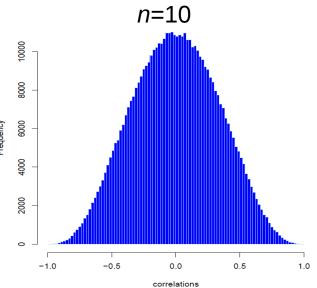
→ *n* varies

Calculate sample correlation matrix.









Issues: penalized estimation

Problem

- → few samples, many parameters,
- \rightarrow estimation is frustated by p > n.

Penalized estimation

- \rightarrow estimation procedures for p > n,
- → less variable but biased estimates,
- → illustrated on reconstruction of networks.

Techniques (in lecture series)

- → ridge regression,
- → lasso regression,
- → ridge and lasso (inverse) covariance estimation.

Issues: asymptotics (not treated)

Problem:

→ when *p* grows, parameters no longer fixed, e.g.:

$$\mathcal{N}_p(oldsymbol{\mu}_p,oldsymbol{\Sigma}_p)$$

Various asymptotic limits discerned:

- $\rightarrow n \succ p: n \rightarrow \infty$ and p fixed,
- $\rightarrow n \succeq p: n \rightarrow \infty \text{ and } d = \mathcal{O}(n),$
- $\rightarrow p \succeq n: p \rightarrow \infty \text{ and } n = \mathcal{O}(p),$
- $\rightarrow p \succ n: p \rightarrow \infty$ and n fixed.

Big data vs. high-dimensional data

Big data:

- → large n: many individuals, large sample size.
- \rightarrow large p: information on many traits of these individuals.

Google:

- → *n* large: many people use Google software.
- \rightarrow *p* large: Google registers everything these *n* do.

Similarly, Facebook, ING, et cetera.

Why:

- → many individuals available.
- → information is cheap to gain.



High-dimensional data:

- \rightarrow small *n*: few individuals, small sample size.
- \rightarrow large p: information on many traits of these individuals.

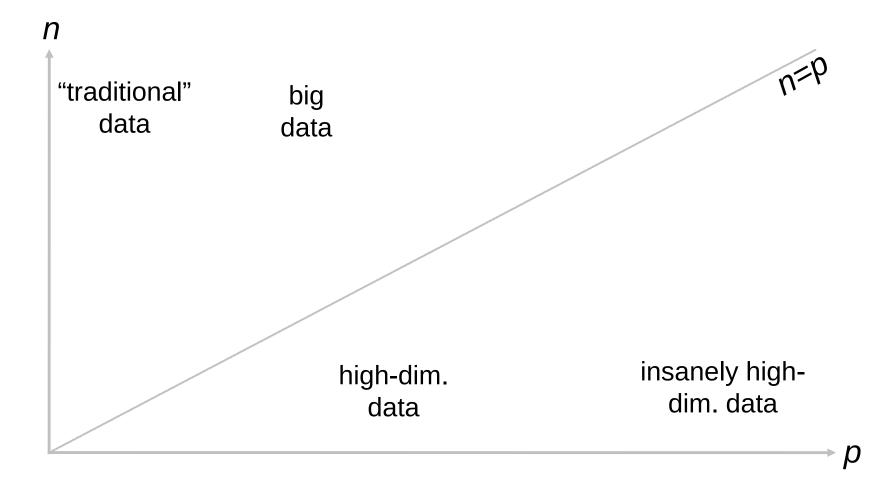
VUmc:

- \rightarrow *n* small: few cancer patients.
- → p large: many traits.

Why:

- → individuals with particular disease not abound.
- → information is expensive.





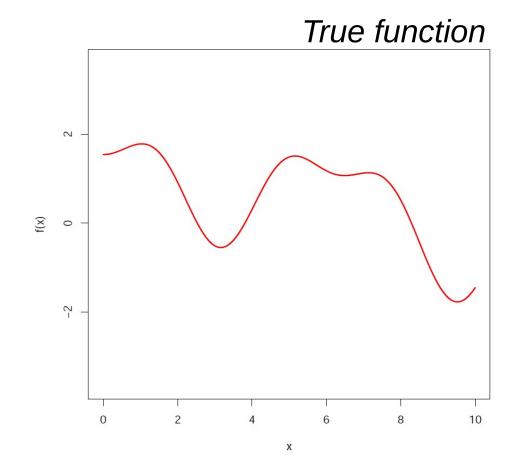
Nonlinear function:

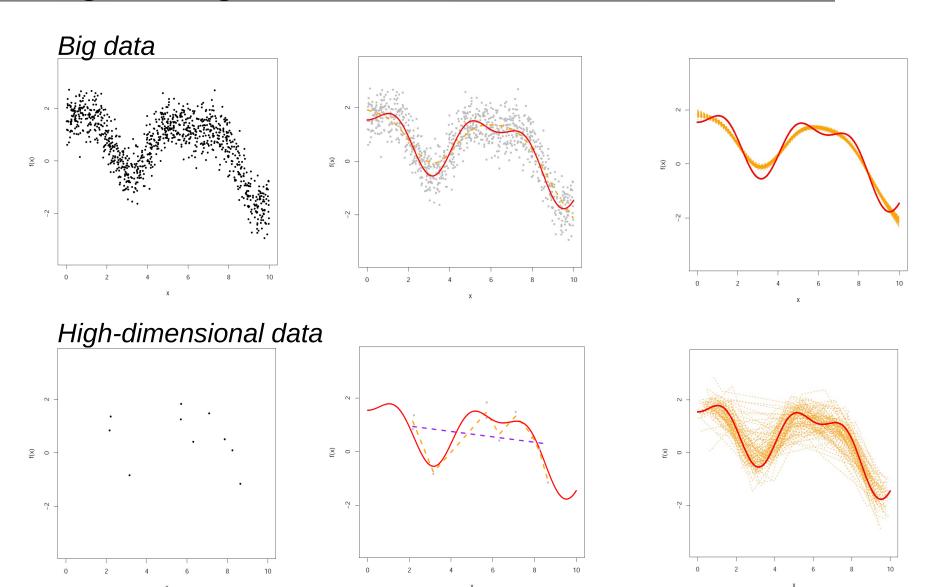
$$f(x) = \sin(x) + \sin(x^2) + \cos(\exp(x^2/100)).$$

Estimate f(x) from:

- \rightarrow big data (n=1000),
- \rightarrow high-dim. data (n=10).

Approximate f(x) by spline with p degrees of freedom. Use p < 7, while f(x) requires p >> 7.





Big and high-dimensional data often differ in the experimental design underlying the data.

Big data

Practice
Google collects
virtually anything it can
gets its hands on.

Design
Observational at best

High-dim. data

Practice
VUmc financial sources
limited: careful planning
of experiments.

Design
Observational, but
often well-controlled
experiments.

Big and high-dimensional data often used for different purposes.

Big data

Practice

Google optimizes

advertisement revenue.

High-dim. data

Practice

VUmc tries to cure

patients.

Aim

Predict behaviour of

the internet user.

Aim

<u>Understanding</u> of the

disease mechanism.

Both big and high-dimensional data sometimes originate from diffuse sources.

Big data

Google measures all, but may also acquire third-party data.

High-dim. data

VUmc measures molecular and clinical traits of patients.

The data thus comes from various sources, possibly in different formats and with varying quality. To benefit from this multitude of sources is challenging.

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